

# Investment Networks, Sectoral Comovement, and the Changing U.S. Business Cycle

Christian Von Lehn    Thomas Winberry

Discussion: Lilia Maliar

# Was machen sie in Artikel?

- By paper, I mean a composite of a previous version of the paper (henceforth, LW, 2019) and slides presented today.
- *Motivation*: explain RBC patterns in two subperiods
  - before 1984
  - after 1984.
- Nonstationary aggregate patterns of interest:

	<b>before 1984</b>	<b>after 1984</b>	<b>change</b>
<i>labor productivity</i>	highly procyclical	roughly acyclical	↓ by 60%
<i>output</i>	more volatile	less volatile	↓ by 40%

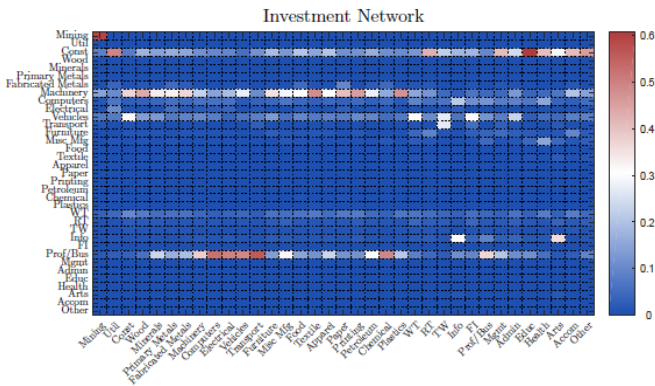
⇒ Relative volatility of labor to that of output ↑ by 34%.

- Also, volatility of agg. investment relative to output increased in post-1984 period.
- *Idea*: to relate these nonstationary RBC patterns to sectoral comovements.



# Was machen sie in Artikel? (cont.)

- Production of investment goods is concentrated in a small number of sectors – "investment hubs", IH.
- LW (2019): an IH comprises at least 10% of the investment goods in a different sector.



## Propagation of "investment hub shocks"

- Let NH = non-hub sector
- Productivity in NH  $\uparrow$ 
  - Value added of NH  $\uparrow$
  - Employment of NH  $\uparrow$
  - Demand for investment in NH  $\uparrow$
  - This increase in investment demand must be met by IHs
  - IHs  $\uparrow$  their demands for other sectors' intermediate goods
  - Employment  $\uparrow$  in all sectors
- Thus, employment is driven by "investment-hub shocks".

# Was machen sie in Artikel? (cont.)

- Within-sector patterns are stationary:

	<b>before 1984</b>	<b>after 1984</b>	<b>change</b>
<i>labor productivity</i>	procyclical	procyclical	0%
<i>output</i>	highly volatile	less volatile	↓ by 16%

⇒ Relative volatility of labor to that of output did not change.

- Driving forces at the sector level:

	<b>before 1984</b>	<b>after 1984</b>
<i>value added</i>	aggregate TFP shocks	sector-level TFP shocks
<i>employment</i>	aggregate TFP shocks	investment-hub shocks

# Comment 1: Why a multisector model?

- LW (2019) motivate their work by the basic RBC facts:
  - labor productivity is highly procyclical in pre-1984 and roughly acyclical in post-1984 years.
- Using the multisector RBC model, LW (2019) show that sectoral heterogeneity matters for agg. dynamics.
- Why was consumer heterogeneity discarded, as a possible mechanism?
  - in a RA,  $\text{corr}\left(\frac{y}{n}, n\right) = 1$ .
- Maliar and Maliar (2001, JEDC):
  - a HA version of the optimal growth model.

	$\gamma = \frac{3}{2}$ $\sigma = 1$	$\gamma = 1$ $\sigma = 1$	$\gamma = \frac{3}{5}$ $\sigma = \frac{1}{3}$	$\gamma = \frac{3}{5}$ $\sigma = \frac{1}{5}$	$\gamma = \frac{3}{5}$ $\sigma = \frac{3}{20}$	U.S.
$\sigma_n$	0.51	0.70	1.65	1.85	2.01	1.66
$\sigma_{y/n}$	0.78	0.69	0.25	0.23	0.25	1.18
$\rho_{\frac{y}{n}, y}$	0.99	0.98	0.59	0.17	-0.17	0.42

1. Solutions are found by **linearization**.
  - Volatility of sector-specific shocks does not affect solutions.
2. Consider just **2 subperiods**: before 1984 and after 1984.
  - What is magic about 1984?
  - How are two solutions (for two subperiods) are put together?
3. All parameters other than shocks are **constant** over time:
  - E.g., intermediate and investment I-O networks are averages across 1947-2017.
  - Covariance matrix  $\Sigma_\tau$  in the process for the sector-specific TFP,

$$\log A_{jt+1} = \rho_j \log A_{jt} + \varepsilon_{jt+1}, \quad \varepsilon_{jt+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_\tau),$$

differs in two subperiods,  $\Sigma_\tau = (\Sigma_{pre-1984}, \Sigma_{post-1984})$ .



## Comment 2: Why are there just two subperiods?

- It would be natural that these periods (pre-1984 and post-1984) were not fixed.
- Instead, there is a process for each parameter that changes over time.
- There is evidence in the literature on time-changes in
  - depreciation rate  $\delta_j$ ;
  - labor share  $1 - \alpha_j$ ;
  - volatility of sector-specific shocks.
- Other parameters that they can make time-dependent in their model:
  - value-added shares  $\theta_j$ ;
  - intermediate I-O network  $\Gamma_{ij}$ ;
  - investment I-O network  $\Lambda_{ij}$ ;
  - consumption shares  $\xi_j$ .
- Now they are computed as averages over 1947-2017 (the benchmark model) or as averages in 2 subperiods.

## Comment 2: Why are there just two subperiods?

- Traditionally, RBC facts are explained by stationary RBC models.
- LW (2019) document many non-stationary patterns and use a stationary model to account for them.
- Why to use a stationary model to explain non-stationary patterns?
- I want to show the methodology that
  - characterizes the solutions that change over time;
  - solves non-linearly.
- My presentation is based on the paper "Tractable Framework for Analyzing a Class of Nonstationary Markov Models" (joint with S. Maliar, J. Taylor and I. Tsener).
- Publicly provided code: "*EFP\_MMTT\_2015.zip*" - *Extended Function Path (EFP) method for time-dependent models.*
- Computes an accurate solution to a test-model with labor augmenting technological progress and balanced growth using a transformation to stationary model.
- Computes an EFP solution to a nonstationary test model directly, **without using the property of balanced growth.**

# Motivation: Why nonstationary models?

## Unbalanced growth in the U.S. data

- Growth patterns appear to be highly unbalanced. For example, over the 1963-1992 period (Krusell, Ohanian, Ríos-Rull, Violante 2000):
  - output and the stock of structures increased by a factor of two;
  - the stock of equipment increased by more than seven times;
  - the number of unskilled workers slightly decreased;
  - the number of skilled workers nearly doubled;
  - the price of equipment relative to consumption (structures) went down by more than four times;
  - the skill premium was roughly stationary.
- Moreover, the growth rates are not constant over time.
- *Question:* "Can a general-equilibrium macroeconomic model (e.g. with capital-skill complementarity) explain such unbalanced growth patterns?"
- *To answer,* one may need **a framework for analyzing nonstationary and unbalanced growth models.**

## Other examples of nonstationary applications

- deterministic trends in the data (population growth, climate changes, etc.);
- different kinds of technological progress that augment productivity of different factors, e.g., directed technical change;
- an entry into a monetary union;
- nonrecurrent policy regime switches;
- deterministic seasonals;
- changes in the consumer's tastes and habits.

*In such models, the optimal value and/or decision functions nontrivially change from one period to another.*

# A nonstationary growth model

We now introduce nonstationary Markov environment into dynamic general equilibrium modeling paradigm:

$$\max_{\{c_t, k_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} E_0 \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u_t(c_t) \right] \quad (1)$$

$$\text{s.t. } c_t + k_{t+1} = (1 - \delta) k_t + f_t(k_t, z_t), \quad (2)$$

$$z_{t+1} = \rho_t z_t + \sigma_t \varepsilon_{t+1}, \quad \varepsilon_{t+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad (3)$$

– sequence of  $u_t$ ,  $f_t$  and  $\varphi_t$  for  $t \geq 0$  is known to the agent in period  $t = 0$ ;  $\varepsilon_{t+1}$  is i.i.d;

–  $\rho_t \in (-1, 1)$  and  $\sigma_t \in (0, \infty)$  are given at  $t = 0$ .

- The conditional distribution  $z_{t+1} \sim \mathcal{N}(\rho_t \bar{z}_t, \sigma_t^2)$  depends only on the most recent past  $z_t = \bar{z}_t$  and is independent of history  $(z_t, \dots, z_0)$ .

$\implies$  *The process is Markov.*

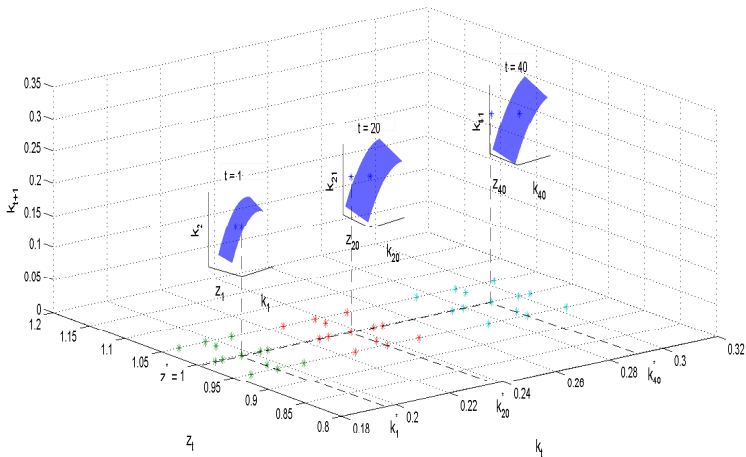
- Since  $\rho_t$  and  $\sigma_t$  change over time, the conditional probability distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\rho_t \bar{z}_t, \sigma_t^2)$  depends not only on state  $z_t = \bar{z}_t$  but also on a specific period  $t$ .  $\implies$  *The transitions are nonstationary.*

# Introducing extended function path (EFP) framework

**Extended function path (EFP) framework** includes two steps.

- **Solving a  $T$ -period stationary economy:** Assume that in a very remote period  $T$ , the economy becomes stationary, i.e., the utility and production functions and the laws of motions for exogenous shocks are time invariant, i.e.,  $u_t = u$ ,  $f_t = f$ ,  $\rho_t = \rho$  and  $\sigma_t = \sigma$  for all  $t \geq T$ :  
 $\Rightarrow$  we can solve for equilibrium using conventional methods for stationary models.
- **Constructing a function path:** Using the  $T$ -period solution as terminal condition, iterate backward on optimality conditions to construct a sequence (path) of time-dependent value and decision functions  $(V_0(\cdot), V_1(\cdot), \dots)$  and/or  $(K_0(\cdot), K_1(\cdot), \dots)$ .  
 $\Rightarrow$  this is like solving OLG models.

# Example of function path constructed by EFP



# Theoretical foundations of EFP framework

We provide theoretical foundations of the extended function path framework.

We prove two theorems:

- **Theorem 1 (existence):** EFP approximations exists, is unique and possess a Markov structure.
- **Theorem 2 (turnpike):** EFP can approximate a time-dependent solution to a nonstationary Markov model with an arbitrary degree of precision as the time horizon  $T$  increases.



# Turnpike theorem

Turnpike  $\equiv$  highway.



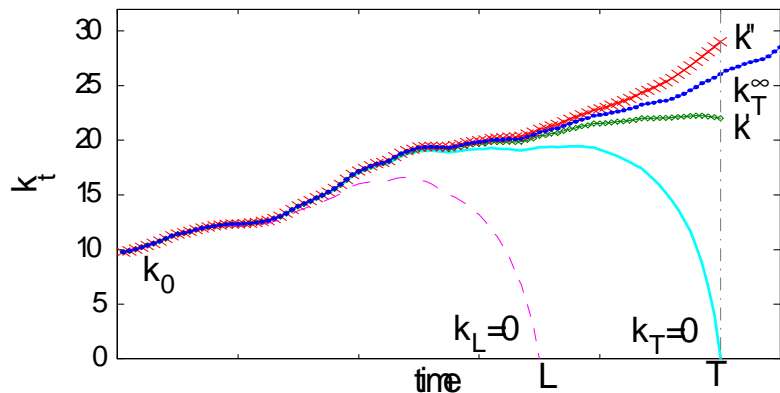
# Turnpike theorem

- *Turnpike theorems*: turnpike is often the fastest route between two points which are far apart even if it is not a direct shortest route.
- Example: Driving from Los Angeles to San Francisco on highway 5.



# Illustration of turnpike theorem

When you are young, you behave as if you will live forever...



## Application 1: Diminishing volatility

There is evidence that the volatility has a well pronounced time trend.

- Mc Connel and Pérez-Quiros (2000):
  - a *monotone* structural decline in the volatility of real GDP growth in the U.S. economy.
- Blanchard and Simon (2001):
  - a *nonmonotone* pattern of the decline in the U.S. GDP volatility: there was a steady decline in the volatility from the 1950s to 1970, then there was a stationary pattern and finally, there was another decline in the late 1980s and the 1990s.
- Stock and Watson (2003):
  - a *sharp reduction* in volatility of U.S. GDP growth in the first quarter of 1984.
- This kind of evidence cannot be reconciled in a model in which stochastic volatility follows a standard AR(1) process with stationary transitions.

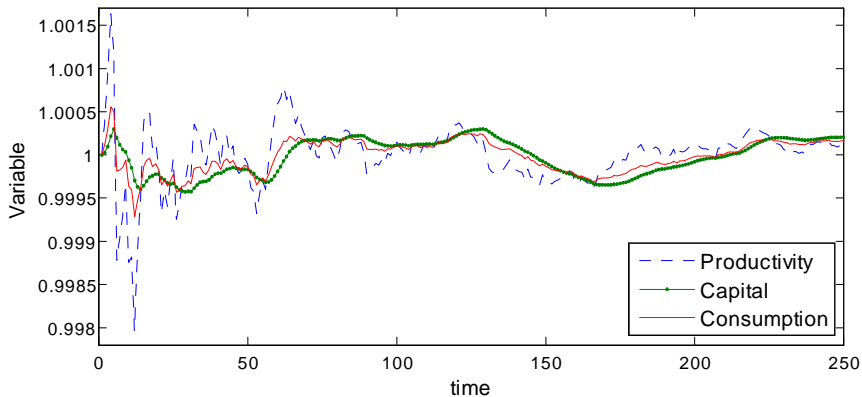
## Application 1: Diminishing volatility (cont.)

- We consider a model in which the volatility has both a stochastic and deterministic components.
- We modify the standard neoclassical stochastic growth model to include a diminishing volatility of the productivity shock:

$$\ln z_t = \rho \ln z_{t-1} + \sigma_t \varepsilon_t, \quad \sigma_t = \frac{B}{t^{\rho_\sigma}}, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$$

- $B$  = a scaling parameter;
- $\rho_\sigma$  = a parameter that governs the volatility of  $z_t$ .
- The standard deviation of the productivity shock  $B\sigma / t^{\rho_\sigma}$  decreases over time, reaching zero in the limit,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{B\sigma}{t^{\rho_\sigma}} = 0$ .

# Application 1: Diminishing volatility (cont.)



## Application 2: Calibrating a growth model with a parameter drift to unbalanced U.S. data

- We took macroeconomic data on the U.S. economy from the webpages of the Bureau of Economic Analysis and the Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis.
- The sample spans over the period 1964:Q1 - 2011:Q4.
- While the constructed data are grossly consistent with Kaldor's (1961) facts, we still observe visible differences in growth rates across variables.
- We do not test whether or not such differences in growth rates are statistically significant but formulate and estimate an unbalanced growth model in which different variables can grow at differing rates.

# The model with a depreciation rate drift

We extend the benchmark model to include time-varying depreciation rate of capital,

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\{c_t, k_{t+1}\}_{t=0, \dots, \infty}} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t) \\ & \text{s.t. } c_t + k_{t+1} = A_t z_t k_t^\alpha + (1 - d_t \delta_t) k_t, \\ & \ln \delta_t = \rho_\delta \ln \delta_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{\delta, t}, \quad \varepsilon_{\delta, t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon_d}^2), \\ & \ln z_t = \rho_z \ln z_{t-1} + \varepsilon_{z, t}, \quad \varepsilon_{z, t} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon_z}^2), \end{aligned}$$

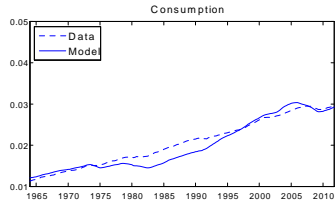
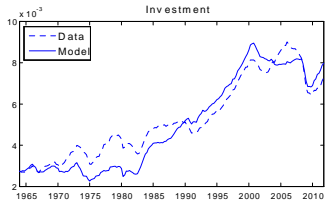
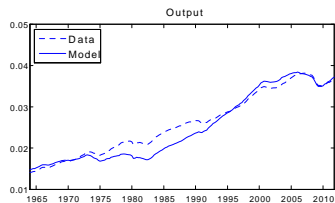
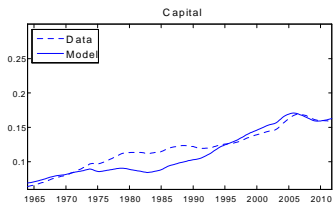
$d_t \delta_t$  = a time-varying depreciation rate;  $d_t$  = a trend component of depreciation,  $d_t = d_0 g_d^t$ ;  $\delta_t$  = a stochastic shock to depreciation.



# The model with a depreciation-rate drift

- Our assumption of a time trend in depreciation rate is consistent with the data of the Bureau of Economic Analysis.
- The aggregate depreciation rate changes over time because the composition of aggregate capital changes over time even if depreciation rates of each type of capital are constant; see Karabarbounis and Brent (2014).
- In turn, shocks to depreciation rate can result from the economic obsolescence of capital and are studied in, e.g., Liu, Waggoner and Zha (2011) and Gourio (2012).
- Gourio (2012) argues that a shock to the capital depreciation rate plays an important role in accounting for the business cycle fluctuations.

# Fitted time series



- **An excellent paper:**
  - documented many new interesting empirical regularities on changing business cycles;
  - their theory is consistent with their empirical regularities;
  - explain economic mechanisms behind the changes in patterns;
  - provide supportive evidence of mechanisms.
- The model describes well the average behavior of comovement across all sectors.
  - the model's  $R^2$  is 52%!
- Future work might address the arbitrariness of the cut-off period (i.e., 1984) and analyze a fully nonstationary RBC model.